

Statistics: Lecture 1 - Probability Theory and Random Variables

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(Lukacs 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 3 & Soong 3.1)

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① Probability Theory

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- **simple events/outcomes** $\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots$: Relevant outcomes for a random phenomena
- **sample space** Ω : Set of all simple outcomes
- **(random) experiment**: Procedure having a defined set of possible outcomes
- **event**: Subset of the sample space (all events: All subsets)
- An event is said to occur when one of the outcomes it contains occurs
- **complementary event** to the event E_i : Set of outcomes not contained in E_i (denoted by E_i^c)

Example: Coin Toss

- experiment: Tossing a coin
- simple outcomes: $\omega_1 = H$ (head) and $\omega_2 = T$ (tail)
- sample space:

$$\Omega = \{H, T\}$$

- events: $E_1 = H$ and $E_2 = T$

Example: Tossing a Coin twice

- experiment: Tossing a coin twice
- basic outcomes: $\omega_1 = HH$, $\omega_2 = HT$, $\omega_3 = TH$ and $\omega_4 = TT$,
- sample space:

$$\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$$

- (possible) events:

$$E_1 = \{HH, HT, TH\} \text{ ("at least one head")}$$

$$E_2 = \{HH, TT\} \text{ ("both faces same")}$$

$$E_1^c = \{TT\} \text{ ("no head")} \text{ (complement of } E_1)$$

Vocabs (classic algebra of sets)

- **certain event**: Ω
- **impossible event**: \emptyset
- **union** of A and B : Set of sample points that belong to at least A or B
(denoted by $A \cup B$)
- **intersection** of A and B : Set of sample points that belong to both A
and B (denoted by $A \cap B$)

Example (previous)

- $E_1 \cup E_2 = \Omega$
- $E_1 \cap E_2 = \{HH\}$

- **Probability** is a value assigned to a simple outcome.

Consider $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$. To each ω_i , we assign its probability $P(\omega_i) = p_i$, which satisfies

$$p_i \in [0, 1] \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1 .$$

For an event A , we assign its probability

$$P(A) = \sum_{\omega_i \in A} p_i .$$

\leadsto the probability of an event A is the sum of the probabilities of the simple outcomes contained in this event.

Probability (Example)

Tossing a coin twice:

- $P(\omega_1) = P(HH) = p_1 = \frac{1}{4},$
 $P(\omega_2) = P(HT) = p_2 = \frac{1}{4},$
 $P(\omega_3) = P(TH) = p_3 = \frac{1}{4},$
 $P(\omega_4) = P(TT) = p_4 = \frac{1}{4}$ with

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 p_i = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = 1 .$$

- $E_1 = \{HH, HT, TH\}$ ("at least one head")

$$\rightsquigarrow P(E_1) = p(HH) + p(HT) + p(TH) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{4}$$

- $E_1^c = \{TT\}$ ("no head")

$$\rightsquigarrow P(E_1^c) = 1 - P(E_1) = 1 - \frac{3}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$$

(probability of a complementary event: $P(E) = 1 - P(E^c)$)

Let \mathcal{E} be the event space containing all events. For the events E_1, E_2, \dots in \mathcal{E} and the sample space Ω it holds that

- non-negativity:

$$P(E_i) \geq 0 \quad \forall E_i \in \mathcal{E}$$

- unit measure:

$$P(\Omega) = 1$$

- σ -additivity: If E_1, E_2, \dots are disjoint ($E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset, j \neq i$), then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(E_i)$$

Consequences of Kolmogorov's Axioms

For the events E_1, E_2, \dots in the event space \mathcal{E} and the sample space Ω it holds that

- $P(\emptyset) = 0$
- if $E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset \Rightarrow P(E_i \cap E_j) = 0$
- $P(E_i) \in [0, 1] \quad \forall E_i \in \mathcal{E}$
- $P(E_i) = 1 - P(E_i^c) \quad \forall E_i \in \mathcal{E}$
- if $E_i \subseteq E_j \Rightarrow P(E_i) \leq P(E_j)$

The Addition Rule

- For any two events A and B , it holds that

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B) \ .$$

- For the events E_1, E_2, \dots , it holds that

$$P\left(\bigcup_i E_i\right) \leq \sum_i P(E_i) \ .$$

(note the difference to σ -additivity)

The Addition Rule (Example)

Example: Roll a die once. What is the probability, that the number is even or that the number is smaller than four?

$\leadsto A = \{2, 4, 6\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} & P(A \cup B) \\ &= P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B) \\ &= P(\{2, 4, 6\}) + P(\{1, 2, 3\}) - P(\{2\}) \\ &= \frac{3}{6} + \frac{3}{6} - \frac{1}{6} \\ &= \frac{5}{6} \end{aligned}$$

Probability Assignment: Probability Trees

- Used to represent a series of events.
- Example: Tossing a coin twice. A is the first toss, B the second one.

Probability Assignment: Probability Tables (two Events)

Example: Tossing a coin twice. A is the first toss, B is the second toss.

Then the probability table providing the joint probabilities is given by

	$A = H$	$A = T$	$P(B)$
$B = H$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
$B = T$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
$P(A)$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1

- $P(A = H \cap B = H) = \frac{1}{4}$
- $P(\{A = H \cap B = H\} \cup \{A = T \cap B = T\})$
 $= P(A = H \cap B = H) + P(A = T \cap B = T)$
 $= \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$

since $\{A = H \cap B = H\} \cap \{A = T \cap B = T\} = \emptyset$ are disjoint sets

Probability Assignment: Probability Tables (three Events)

Example: Tossing a coin three times. A is the first toss, B is the second toss and C is the third toss, respectively. Then the probability table providing the joint probabilities is given by

$C = H$	$A = H$	$A = T$	$P(B \cap C = H)$
$B = H$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
$B = T$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
$P(A \cap C = H)$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1

$C = T$	$A = H$	$A = T$	$P(B \cap C = T)$
$B = H$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
$B = T$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
$P(A \cap C = T)$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	

- What is the probability of me going to a party tonight?
- What is the probability of me going to party tonight, when there is beer for free?

- Given two events A and B , the conditional probability of A given B is defined as

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} , P(B) > 0 .$$

- Equivalently, it holds that

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A|B) \cdot P(B) .$$

Conditional Probability (Example)

Consider the event P with outcomes y and n , which corresponds to the outcome of going to the party (yay) or not (nay). Further, we have the event of beer for free, B , which has the outcomes y and n . We assume the following probability table:

	$P = y$	$P = n$	$P(B)$
$B = y$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$
$B = n$	0	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{8}$
$P(P)$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1

What is the probability of me going to party tonight, when there is beer for free?

$$P(P = y|B = y) = \frac{P(P = y \cap B = y)}{P(B = y)} = \frac{1/2}{5/8} = \frac{4}{5}.$$

The Total Probability Rule

Let E_1, E_2, \dots be events and suppose that $P(E_i) > 0 \forall i$. Let A be an arbitrary event, then

$$P(A) = \sum_i P(E_i)P(A|E_i) .$$

Bayes' Theorem

Let E_1, E_2, \dots be events and suppose that $P(E_i) > 0 \forall i$. Let A be an arbitrary event satisfying $P(A) > 0$, then

$$P(E_i|A) = \frac{P(E_i)P(A|E_i)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(E_i)P(A|E_i)}{\sum_i P(E_i)P(A|E_i)} .$$

- What is the probability of me going to a party tonight?
- What is the probability of me going to party tonight, when there is bad weather in England?

Independence

- Two events A and B are said to be **independent**, if

$$P(A|B) = P(A) \quad \left(\text{or } P(B|A) = P(B) \right) .$$

- Equivalently, it holds that

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B) .$$

- Where does this come from?

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = P(A) \Leftrightarrow P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B) .$$

Independence of more than two events

- The events E_1, E_2, \dots are said to be independent, if

$$P\left(\bigcap_i E_i\right) = \prod_i P(E_i) \ .$$

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Random Variables (Introduction)

- We want to consider random experiments associated with numerical outcomes
- Example: Rolling a die \rightsquigarrow outcomes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6
- Example: Tossing a coin \rightsquigarrow translate outcomes "H" and "T" to 1 and 0
- Random variables are the base of probability theory
We will only focus on the application, not the theory
- The definitions are not always mathematically complete; although sufficient for this course

Random Variable (definition)

- Our (sufficient) definition of a **random variable** (rv):

A random variable X is a function

$$X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \omega \mapsto x = X(\omega)$$

from a sample space, Ω , to the real numbers, \mathbb{R} .

- X is called a **discrete** rv if it is defined over a sample space having finite or a countably infinite number of sample points. In this case, X takes on discrete values.
- X is called a **continuous** rv if it is distributed over one or more continuous intervals in \mathbb{R} .

Random Variable (Example: Coin Toss)

- sample space:

$$\Omega = \{H, T\}$$

- we want to build a RV X that assigns the value 1 for "Head" and 0 for "Tail":

$$X(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega = H \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega = T \end{cases}$$

Random Variable (Example: Rolling a die)

- sample space:

$$\Omega = \{ "1", "2", "3", "4", "5", "6" \}$$

- we want to build a RV X that assigns the value 1 when the die shows "1", the value 2 when the die shows "2",...

$$X(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega = "1" \\ 2 & \text{if } \omega = "2" \\ 3 & \text{if } \omega = "3" \\ \vdots & \vdots \end{cases}$$

Random Variable (Example: Rolling a die "reverse")

- sample space:

$$\Omega = \{"1", "2", "3", "4", "5", "6"\}$$

- we want to build a RV X that assigns the value 6 when the die shows "1", the value 5 when the die shows "2",...

$$X(\omega) = \begin{cases} 6 & \text{if } \omega = "1" \\ 5 & \text{if } \omega = "2" \\ 4 & \text{if } \omega = "3" \\ \vdots & \vdots \end{cases}$$

Random Variable (Properties)

Let X and Y be two random variables. Then

- $X + Y$ is a RV
- $X - Y$ is a RV
- $c \cdot X$ is a RV (for $c \in \mathbb{R}$ a constant)
- X^2 is a RV
- $X \cdot Y$ is a RV
- $\frac{1}{X}$ is a RV (if $X \neq 0$)
- $\frac{X}{Y}$ is a RV (if $Y \neq 0$)